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The **Journal of Educational Sociology**

A Magazine of Theory and Practice

Vol. IV

MARCH, 1931

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The Journal of Educational Sociology

A Magazine of Theory and Practice

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EDITORIAL

In this day of changing curricula and methods, we are inevitably conceiving new purposes in education. The aims of education bear a reference to social need and have always done so. If awareness and discussion now focus upon the consideration of why we have any education at all, that is because we have been driven by necessity to evaluate goals of education as well as the processes by which it is attained. To the educational sociologist, the desirable outcomes of education center upon social adaptation, that happy adjustment of any individual human equipment to the environment which life experience offers each person.

Ask any group to nominate the desirable characteristics of admired adults. The mastery of subject matter will find no place in such a list; the emphasis will be instead upon those qualities of character that aid in efficient adaptation to the business of living. Dr. Ira M. Gast recently questioned a group of one hundred teachers about curricular outcomes which society has a right to expect, and we are indebted to him for the following quotations from his report:

Teachers seem always to have emphasized the importance of such outcomes as truthfulness, obedience, reliability, punctuality, and industry, but doubtless they have valued these outcomes as individual traits rather than because of their social significance. Social outcomes when stated at all seem to be so clothed in abstractions as to be incomprehensible to pupils, parents, and even teachers. We have talked about a profitable use of leisure time, worthy home membership, and citizenship, but such terms have little meaning without further analysis. Social outcomes need expression in terms commonly understood.

There is much variation of opinion among teachers regarding the matter of outcomes, but the combined attitudes of a considerable number of teachers may be considered as having some value. Each teacher submitted a list of at least fifteen desirable curricular outcomes which are rather definitely understood by the general public. The list containing those outcomes most often mentioned by the group of teachers includes:

1. Consideration for others
2. Health
3. Helpfulness
4. Honor
5. Obedience to law and order
6. Perseverance and industry
7. Reliability
8. Respect for property
9. Self-respect and control
10. Truthfulness

The challenge in such a list is that it deals with outcomes that spread over life. These concerns do not inhere in conventional school training or practice but they permeate living in and out of the schoolroom. We are growing more conscious of these aims of education for, certainly, while progressive schools have given these matters some thought, the ordinary curriculum in the ordinary school trusts to luck about most of them. The hope is that the ordinary curriculum will succumb. The future of education consists solely of clarifying these aims and making them manifest in the machinery of the school.

HIDDEN PHILOSOPHIES: THE INNOCENT BYSTANDER SPEAKS

C. L. ROBBINS

In the October number of THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY, Professor Kilpatrick renders education a genuine service by making of a book¹ review an opportunity for a criticism of underlying philosophy. Instead of being content to present a list of topics or a rehash of salient ideas, he attempts to get at what is more fundamental and more important—the real direction in which the work under consideration tends. It is to be hoped that many others who are called upon to review books will follow his example.

Since we have here a matter that is not a private argument between the critic and the author, perhaps a third party, an innocent bystander, may be permitted to participate. The reasons for such participation are two. In the first place, it seems to the third party that the reviewer distorts certain ideas of the book reviewed; and in the second place, it seems to him that the philosophy which is used as a standard of criticism is in itself to be criticized.

Distortion appears first in the degree of certainty (amounting to cocksureness) which Professor Kilpatrick imputes to Professor Peters. Thus, in stating what he considers the professed theory of the book, the reviewing philosopher says: "Life and our world of affairs is the kind of thing that can in time—granted probable increase of knowledge—be foretold with fair accuracy. Man as a behaving organism can, also in fair probability, become similarly well known, so that we can expect to be able to foretell with sufficient accuracy the 'preadjustments' man will need in this about-to-be-foretold world of affairs." And

¹C. C. Peters, *Objectives and Procedures in Civic Education*. (New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1930.)

elsewhere: "Note the scientific exactness of every procedure. We are dealing with practical certainties." A better appreciation of the degree of certainty which Professor Peters feels is to be gained by reading what appears on page 26. There we find the following:

It is also a somewhat dangerous function, for there is the possibility that one may be mistaken regarding the ideals and other traits to which one's pupils should be brought. . . . We wish that teachers might know with perfect infallibility to what sort of character pupils ought to be led. None of us have perfect knowledge about this, but we shall get much further by using the best knowledge we can possess than by giving up and allowing matters to drift on merely by chance.

Such certainty as Professor Peters feels is based upon the idea that if we know what we wish to accomplish, science will find a way—an idea quite different from having foreknowledge of all the permutations and combinations of a changing world.

In the matter of what is included in the idea of "the future," it seems to the innocent bystander that there is further distortion. Professor Kilpatrick discusses at some length the generally recognized fact that we cannot foretell future situations with any degree of certainty. He then makes it appear that Professor Peters pretends to have prescience beyond human capacity and that he must have such foreknowledge in order to make his blue prints. What Professor Peters really does is to outline, not a scheme of future situations with corresponding adjustments, but a picture of what he and his collaborators believe the world (or part of it) ought to be made. There is a great difference between pretending to know what will be and making an effort to shape the world to our heart's desires. ("Our first step is to get a blue print of the individual or the society we want—a detailed picture of the good citizen, the man of culture, the vocationally efficient person, etc.," Peters, page 21.)

It may be that any one who wishes to make a detailed picture of the good citizen ought, first of all, to know the

future in which that good citizen is to live; but Professor Peters has refrained from any attempt to map out the details of that future. He has merely attempted to show what the good citizen ought to be.

In this connection (forecasting the future and making blue prints) it may be remarked parenthetically that Professor Kilpatrick's illustration seems rather weak. He imagines a walk during which he has to be on the alert to keep from being run over by a motor vehicle, and uses the contingencies that arise as evidence that blue prints cannot be made. As a matter of fact, probably any Gotham-bred child of eight years could make a very adequate blue print of a walk from the Battery to Spuyten Duyvil. Only a philosopher would find serious difficulty in the task.

It seems, then, that Peters is accused of two faults of which he is not guilty. He does not pretend to be able to foretell the future. His blue print is an attempt to present a picture, not of the future in detail, but of the good citizen who is to be.

If it be objected that it is useless to attempt to draw up a picture of the future citizen unless we base it upon a detailed knowledge of the world in which he will live, the reply is that one's portrayal of Peters should show what he did, not what he ought to have done. A criticism of his philosophy will, of course, deal with what he ought to have done.

Throughout his discussion, Professor Kilpatrick seems to take the blue-print figure of speech too seriously and literally. If he had lived among the Greeks he would probably have criticized Aristotle for talking about intellectual subject matter in terms used for building materials.

Having considered the distortion of the visible Peters, we now come to the philosophical implications of what his book is and seems to be—the invisible Peters.

In the first place, we read that his blue-print theory implies foretelling the future—even though he specifically

states that he does not pretend to have that power. It is difficult to see how the inference is drawn. Certainly it is not necessary to do any great looking into the future to make a blue print in the literal sense. Obviously, it would be very satisfactory if every person who plans a house could peer into the future and see all the "situations" in which the house would find itself. But just as obviously a blue print of a house can be made without any such glimpse into the future; it being understood, of course, that the best possible estimate of future needs will be made. In the case of the educational blue print, it seems clear, regardless of any implications concerning impossibility, that Peters has gone ahead and made one. It is not necessary to imply what he himself disclaims—miraculous foresight.

It seems to the innocent bystander that the whole matter of change and readjustment may be overemphasized. It is admitted, of course, that the world changes, that no two situations are exactly the same, that there is a constant rearrangement even of recurring elements. But what of it? Take a typical series of situations for a university professor. He goes to his office morning after morning and never finds exactly what he left the afternoon before. The particles of dust have shifted into new patterns; the colors of his books have faded to an infinitesimal degree; all the air that was there yesterday has gone and other air has taken its place; the whole room is nearer final disintegration than ever before. But how often does change demand any plan of action "contrived on the spot"?

The new is always so full of the old, or the new creeps so gradually into the old, that most of us, philosophers included, constantly use our preadjustments and find them adequate. So far as the solving of new problems is concerned, the "stream of novelly developing events" is about 99.44 per cent old stuff. And that old stuff is satisfactorily handled by preadjustments. True it is, of course, that to lead the good life one must be able to solve important problems as they arise; but few genuine problem situations

reach the level of consciousness. The good life demands that those that are important be recognized as such and handled intelligently. But it is a waste of time and energy to make a problem of every infinitesimal change in the "stream of novelly developing events." Not even a philosopher can spend much of his time with a micrometer measuring slight evidences of novelty, or looking for new problems with a compound microscope.

Even Professor Kilpatrick's ideal of a person who will meet a new situation with a plan of action "contrived on the spot in terms of things then occurring," is an example of preadjustment. The difference between the critic and the criticized in this case seems to be that Peters is willing to assume responsibility for many preadjustments, including preadjustments to novelty, while Kilpatrick would avoid every kind except one—and probably would refuse to call that one preadjustment.

The question of assuming responsibility for exerting the control implied in the work of education is another matter in which the underlying philosophy needs attention. Professor Peters calmly assumes that the young must be educated; that it is the business of teachers to educate them as far and as well as possible. Professor Kilpatrick seems to shrink in horror from any such responsibility. Apparently his readings on the terrors of despotism have left him with a permanent dread of having the few control the many or of having the powerful control the weak and helpless. Whether we like it or not, let us assume that control will be exerted and then look at some of the possibilities.

First, there is the conception of control of all by all or of each by all. This is social despotism, a kind of control that has never been possible in any human group even of the very smallest number. In romance it exists in the case of a pair of perfect lovers; in reality it does not work.

Second, there is the control of each by himself. This is anarchy. It appears beautiful when seen from afar through

a haze of rosy idealism. When really attempted, whether in family, business, school, or government, its rosiness is seen to be but a distant reflection of the fires of hell. Perhaps after hell has been destroyed and all human beings are born wise, gentle, loving, meek, and mild, complete control of each by himself will be a practical philosophy.

Third, there is the control of all or the many by the many—essentially the idea of a democracy as practised in this country. In theory, it means majority rule, although in actual practice it often fails to be such.

Fourth, we may see the control of the many by the few—the type which is abhorrent to Professor Kilpatrick—and to most Americans when they recognize it in government. In actual practice this is the only form of control which seems to give much promise of standing the pragmatic test among the vast majority of people. Although abhorrent under such names as minority rule, aristocracy, oligarchy, and, of late, the Bolshevik experiment, it finds general acceptance as a practical working arrangement.

Fifth, there may be a combination of the third and fourth ideas—a kind of immediate control by the few who are more remotely controlled by the many. This is the general description of our present experiment in public education. The education of the many (children) is in the hands of a few (administrators and teachers) who are controlled by the many (citizens who take the trouble to participate in government). As a working theory of government and of public education, the innocent bystander sees little in this idea to criticize. Indeed, he regards it as the only rational basis of popular education. It is the democratic golden mean between the extremes of social despotism and anarchy.

From Professor Kilpatrick's article it is difficult to discover just which of these fundamental ideas he supports. Undoubtedly, his tone indicates that he would not defend any control of the many by the few. The implication of individual independence in his extreme advocacy of using

individual problem-solving as a fundamental of philosophy for a world of change probably is that he is in the second category—control of each by himself. That is to say, he is an anarchist. As that term is interpreted today, such a characterization seems too harsh for a man as gentle and lovable as Professor Kilpatrick. Perhaps Utopian idealist would better characterize a philosopher whose thinking seems to derive from conditions that lie beyond some "far-off, divine event."

Professor Peters, in contrast with his critic, seems to regard himself as a servant of society—a servant whose job it is to plan the best education possible for the children of those in whose service he is and to whom he is responsible. Or perhaps, he is merely one of those who believe that the few (of whom he is one) should control the many—as Professor Kilpatrick accuses him of being. This matter is not altogether clear to the innocent bystander.

We come finally to the ethics of teaching. Is it morally justifiable for the strong (the teacher) to indoctrinate the weak (the pupil)? For one who cannot know or even pretend to know the future (the teacher or the curriculum maker) to attempt to prepare one who knows even less (the pupil) for that unknowable future?

The only sensible answer is an affirmative. Anything else would mean compelling children to face the future without the benefit of even that little knowledge which their elders have come to possess—or to rob them of the heritage which the experiences of humanity have provided.

But this affirmative answer must be qualified by an *if*. Professor Kilpatrick, who believes in indoctrination of his kind, would insist on impregnating the pupil's mind with the idea of change and the necessity of contriving new solutions as new problems arise. This he is unwilling to call preadjustment. Professor Peters would make his qualifying *if* precede a statement to the effect that preadjustment should be planned upon the basis of the ideas of the wisest and best.

Back of all this lies the question of the ethics of teaching "a thoroughgoing and open-minded study and criticism of all that concerns man, with the correlative implication that the remaking of thought and behavior patterns in obedience to such study is normal and proper." To the innocent bystander, the use of the word *all* reduces this idea to nonsense.

In view of the experience of humanity and the world as it is today and is likely to be for many generations, is it ethical to attempt to give children (or even adults) an open-minded attitude towards such parts of the all as hogishness, lying, committing a public nuisance, incest, murder of one's parents, or even murder in general? Is it ethical to teach children (or adults) to be open-minded on *all* matters and to make their own decisions even after what seems to them to be thoroughgoing and critical study and criticism?

The innocent bystander is willing to have philosophers spend their time making problems of such matters and seeking open-minded solutions; but he regards it as wasteful and harmful to educate children in such a way that they will have other than feelings of disgust and abhorrence for phases of human conduct such as those mentioned. In other words, he, like Kilpatrick, believes in indoctrination of his own kind.

On the whole, we have before us two conflicting philosophies. The one (Kilpatrick's) emphasizes the unknowableness of the future; the other (Peters') lays stress upon the importance of planning for a desirable future. The one avoids responsibility; the other accepts it, even though conscious of weakness. The one fears the establishment of control by the few; the other plans for control by those who are least likely to have ulterior sinister motives—teachers. The one desires a world in which each man will do "what is right in his own eyes"; the other plans to fashion a world controlled by the ideas of the good and wise. In one direction lies a chaotic world in which individual

open-minded planning remakes and unmakes the ways of living which have resulted from the humanity's experience through thousands of years; in the other lies a world in which social control through education is sought as a necessary and desirable part of the good life.

CHARACTER EDUCATION IN THE LONG BEACH CITY SCHOOLS

EMIL LANGE

Long Beach, California, considers character education to be of paramount importance. It not only emphasizes the character-developing values obtained indirectly from the pupils' numerous school contacts, but it also supplements this with a course in the elementary school in direct character training.

The course of study is written for grades one to six and considers five of the ten traits that a pool of judgments considered to be the most important.¹ Twenty-five minutes a week are set aside for direct instruction in character education. Since it seemed advisable to do a more intensive piece of work than the study of ten traits would make possible, the five following were selected for emphasis in the elementary schools. It is planned to include all ten traits in the course of study to be written for the secondary segment. The five traits selected, with suggested time allotments, are:

Honesty	5 weeks
Courtesy	5 weeks
Responsibility	4 weeks
Industry	2 weeks
Punctuality	2 weeks

The elementary course of study is written around situations involving these traits. Teachers do not need to use any of these situations; they are merely suggestions of possibilities. In fact, teachers are encouraged to select situations for discussions that arise from the pupils' experiences.

While it is not believed that knowledge of what is considered honest, courteous, and the like, will necessarily

¹Fourth Yearbook of the National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, pp. 434-435. "A Character Education Plan," by Professor L. Thomas Hopkins.

result in overt action, still it is believed that our schools need to instruct pupils in what are considered American standards, since pupils come from all types of homes, many of which do not know what these standards are. Knowledge is necessary to desirable action.

In the introductory remarks of the course of study the steps for teaching character education are given as follows:

Creating an attitude
Instruction
Generalization
Transfer

In regard to creating an attitude, change in conduct can be expected to follow only when the emotions release the energy necessary to overcome the moral inertia. Instruction on a purely intellectual basis is almost useless, but if a person says with feeling, "Lying is something I abhor," conduct can be expected to change.

The emotions are normally aroused by concrete acts, by specific ideas, and by persons, but not through generalities.

In this course of study, under each trait to be taught will be found short stories dealing with concrete acts or biographical incidents that will aid the teacher in creating the proper attitude. In each instance only the trait to be taught at a certain time is to be emphasized from the story used. A story should take but little time and serves the same purpose that a joke told by a good orator does. It aids the speaker to get in rapport with his audience and is part of the introduction to the address itself.

When the proper emotional attitude is fixed, the next step is instruction in many situations of the trait. This instruction involves the same psychological principles of learning as instruction in any of the academic subjects. Pupils cannot acquire the proper habits for character formation unless they know what the proper actions are. The purpose of this instruction is to teach the best standards of conduct in regard to the traits listed in the course of study.

Great numbers of situations under each trait are presented for instruction so that the pupil may know what is proper conduct in these particular traits. In this way he comes to recognize an honesty situation through seeing it in many different lights and thus making it possible for him to generalize what honesty is.

The greater the number of honesty situations that a pupil recognizes as such, the greater is his opportunity to transfer this knowledge from within the school to outside the school. If he finds a pencil at school he is instructed what the honest procedure is. If transfer has taken place he will know what the honest procedure is when he finds a purse on the street.²

The general method of approach in character education is by lessons and conferences. Lessons include discussions, dramatizations, and materials from literature, art, and life situations. The teacher is encouraged to hold sympathetic conferences with individuals or groups that fail to apply character teachings, and also to consult with the parents of children who need special guidance in forming proper character habits.

The course includes aims, desirable outcomes, topics for teaching, an extensive list of possible situations under each trait, type lessons for each trait, and suggested stories for aiding the development of attitudes.

Examples of topics for teaching, grades 1, 2, 3:

Honesty in relation to conduct at home and at school

1. Telling facts without exaggeration or misrepresentation
2. Telling the truth even at cost
3. Making and keeping promises
4. Honesty in regard to money
5. Honesty in regard to property
6. Honesty in borrowing
7. Honesty in play
8. Honesty in regard to work

Other topics suggested by incidents in the lives of the pupils may be added as occasion demands.³

Example of honesty situations, grade 1B:

In relation to avoiding exaggeration or misrepresentation of facts

When you were not thinking, you started to hum a little song softly in school. When the teacher asks who is humming, if you are very honest, what do you do? . . .

In relation to returning borrowed articles

You are playing in the sand. You borrow Jack's bucket and shovel for just a minute. If you are very honest, how long will you keep them?⁴

²Long Beach City Schools, Course of Study in Character Education, pp. 11-12.

³Long Beach City Schools, Course of Study in Character Education, p. 19.

⁴Long Beach City Schools, Course of Study in Character Education, p. 19.

Teachers' reactions to this course of study show them to believe in it and to be most favorable towards it. Furthermore, pages are left blank throughout the course where teachers may write in stories and situations that have proven especially vital. Such material will be helpful when the course comes up for revision.

It may be stated here that a separate course of study and a specified time allotment are not considered ideal. The desirable situation would be where every teacher considered character education as part of an integrated activity program and the integration of wholesome personality as one of the outcomes of such a program.

But a course of study does set up definite aims, content, and outcomes that are to be realized, and so focuses attention on these during the transition period in which the school of subject-matter dominance will yield to the child-centered school.

The above exposition gives a synopsis of direct character teaching in the Long Beach schools. However, just to consider this phase would be to present an incomplete picture. The innumerable activities in which pupils engage in school today offer ample opportunity to put into practice the knowledges obtained through direct instruction. School activities present situations that are real both to teacher and pupils for vital discussion during the instruction period. Clubs, dramatizations, socialized recitations, and activity programs give promise of providing the emotional stimuli so essential to the carry-over of character-education experiences.

NEED FOR PUBLIC EDUCATION IN ADVERTISEMENT RESPONSE

PAUL MAXWELL

Curriculum leaders seem to agree that the best approach to curriculum research is through a study of actual human behaviors. The following suggestion by Harap is typical: "The specific, usable abilities to be developed in school are determined by an analysis of the major life activities."¹ A great many such analyses have been made now, and the objectives so derived have been used as bases for courses of study. One important human activity, however, has received scant attention. It is response to advertisements. The purpose of this paper is to point out the importance of this function as an objective of public education.

The advertisement is a very common element in the environment of man today. The bulk of the space in newspapers and magazines is devoted to this form of literature. In thickly populated districts, billboards and posters greet one on every hand. A large part of the morning mail usually turns out to consist of appeals to buy, invest, donate, or respond in some other manner. The majority of manufacturers, merchants, and professional people use advertising as an aid in selling their commodities or services. Thus, the people in America are exposed daily to an array of advertisements that vary in the nature of their offerings from the most basic human needs to the most inexcusable luxuries, and from the satisfaction of degrading lusts to salvation of the soul.

And the function of advertising is to influence human behavior, "to persuade others to perform some specific acts."² That it accomplishes its purpose in a large measure

¹Henry Harap, *The Technique of Curriculum Making* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1928), p. 269.

²Henry F. Adams, *Advertising and Its Mental Laws* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1920), p. 4.

is rather a safe assumption. The business men of the United States would hardly be spending more than a billion dollars a year upon advertising if it were not getting results.³ It seems safe to conclude, therefore, that at the present time advertising influences many behaviors of many people; and response to advertisements is one of the important activities of American men and women.

In considering the need for education in advertisement response, it seems well to consider the nature of the influences exerted upon human behavior by advertising. Sometimes advertising is considered a public servant and sometimes a public menace. Both views are worth considering; for no doubt some of the outcomes of advertising are desirable and some are detrimental.

One of the desirable outcomes of advertising is the lowering of costs to the consumer. This is brought about by stimulating demands, thus making possible large-scale production. Another valuable function of advertising is the education of the public to make use of the products and services which industry, government, other institutions and individuals are able to supply thereby raising standards of living. Ex-President Coolidge has said: "When we stop to consider the part which advertising plays in the modern life of production and trade, we see that basically it is that of education. . . . By changing the attitude of mind it changes the material condition of the people."⁴ Then there are types of advertising, such as classified advertisements, which furnish information that helps the public locate needed commodities.

There are also some undesirable outcomes of advertising. Advertisements sometimes appeal to desires that are not needs. The demand for patent medicines, cigarettes, chewing gum, and many other useless or harmful products

³Percival White, *Advertising Research* (New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1927), p. 572. "It is estimated that over a billion dollars annually is appropriated for advertising in the United States."

⁴Hugh E. Agnew and George B. Hotchkiss, *Advertising Principles* (New York: Alexander Hamilton Institute, 1927), p. 29.

is unquestionably stimulated in this way. Advertising also spreads false notions. These may be in the form of exaggerated monetary values, health superstitions, political biases, and the like. Finally, advertising enables manufacturers, merchants, and other minority groups to determine for the public many of the habits and modes of living that prevail. According to Roland S. Vaile, "the control of this power is in the hands of manufacturers and merchants, whose dominant motive is profit. As long as this is true, advertising will be used . . . to urge people to buy the things they are most easily persuaded they want . . . it is unlikely the result will generally be in line with ethical progress. It is not even in line with economic progress."⁵

Since advertising has such important bearings upon the public welfare, it seems reasonable that the public should take measures to control the outcomes of this social force. In fact legislation has been employed for this purpose. The Federal Government prohibits the use of the mails to defraud, and nearly all the States have *Printer's Ink* laws which provide a penalty for fraudulent advertising.

This legislation suggests the desirability of an enlightened public which is able to make use of advertising for what it is worth, and to resist the evil influences of advertising. Attainment of this goal will require education. Advertisers draw freely upon the arts and sciences in attempting to persuade the public to act in a way that is profitable to the advertiser. This makes it difficult to interpret advertising wisely. According to Chase and Schlink, "We are all Alices in a Wonderland of conflicting claims, bright promises, fancy packages, soaring words, and almost impenetrable ignorance."⁶

Therefore it is held that the public school should give instruction in advertisement response because this is a fre-

⁵Roland S. Vaile, *Economics of Advertising* (New York: Ronald Press Company, 1927), p. 173.

⁶Stuart Chase and F. J. Schlink, *Your Money's Worth* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1927), p. 2.

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quent and important human activity; the outcomes of advertising are sometimes desirable, and sometimes undesirable; and advertising is an intricate procedure, difficult to interpret and employ wisely.

EDUCATION AND LABOR

J. FRANK DAY

The growing interest in that aspect of education that may appropriately be called educational economics is rapidly differentiating into many phases. One of the most important of these phases is the relation of education to the problem of labor. This article is a brief outline of one aspect of this relation.

Labor is the human factor in production. It is human energy expended in productive efforts. These efforts may, of course, be physical or mental or both—usually will of necessity be both.

Production is often defined as the creation of utility. What is meant by this definition depends upon what is meant by the term utility. Formerly it was held that no labor was productive that did not result in the production of concrete tangible goods. Now it is universally accepted that personal services are no less productive; that is, that setting a broken limb, teaching a class, or preaching a sermon are as productive as digging ditches, raising wheat, or making stoves. Some of the more progressive thinkers are suggesting that perhaps the word productive ought to be reserved for the creation of only useful utilities. Clearly there are various kinds of utility produced, and hence there is production in several senses.

Utility, broadly speaking, is the relation of a means to an end. If the end is human satisfaction, the utility obtaining is, following Giddings, aptly called "subjective utility," or "desiredness" as Pigou suggests. This is the meaning usually given to the word utility by economists. To increase the want-satisfying power of a good is to be productive in this sense. On the other hand, if the end is human welfare, the utility obtaining may appropriately be called objective utility. This is the sense in which Adam Smith used the term, and now a limited but growing tendency is seen in economic literature to revert to the origi-

nal meaning and to emphasize the welfare point of view. It is clear that an act might be productive in the subjective or want-satisfying sense, and fail to be productive, even be destructive, in the objective or need-supplying sense. Again, it is also very clear to any thinking person that an act may be productive of both types of utility.

Education is concerned with both subjective and objective utility. Desire is necessary to motivate directed activity, and benefit is necessary to ensure welfare. Both types of utility may be created by productive effort not only in concrete exchangeable goods but in the work activity also. That is, labor first may result in the creation of utility, both subjective and objective, in things made, transported, stored, or exchanged, or in services rendered; and secondly, labor itself may be enjoyed and at the same time be beneficial to the worker. Education is vitally concerned with the creation of all four of these aspects of production: subjective utility and also objective utility in both exchangeable goods and in activity. When? During the entire life span—not merely during the salary-drawing period, but also during the previous school-preparatory period and the subsequent period of retirement. The total life span is the significant unit. Satisfaction at any stage is part of the total subjective income, and benefit at any stage is part of the total objective income. Net income in either sense is the gross sum of pleasure or benefit less the human cost in terms of either dissatisfaction or injury. The net income in both senses may be increased either by increasing the gross total or by lessening the cost or by both. Education's duty is to contribute as fully as possible to the dual process. The contribution may take all of several forms, each of which I shall now attempt to consider.

1. *The sources of preparation*—Much might be said concerning the various opportunities that exist for preparing laborers for their future life and work, concerning the relative importance and extent of their contributions, and, finally, concerning the ways their programs could advan-

tageously and progressively be amended. The space limitations of this paper make more than a bare mention of the various sources of preparation impossible.

(a) Some chance exists for "pick-up" training, though much less in many callings than formerly. (b) The home, especially the city home, is now almost lacking in opportunities for specific preparation for industrial or professional service. Of course, the home is fundamentally important as the institution for acquiring the virtues of honesty, thrift, dependability, industry, etc., all basically necessary to vocational efficiency. (c) The institution of industry itself does much in the way of giving initial intensive formal training for the job. The general-welfare work also of many industrial units includes educational provisions of considerable importance in the further preparation of the workers. (d) Organized labor has its educational leagues and programs offering opportunities for both specialized and general education. Early an important factor in the battle for free public schools, many of the labor unions still preserve a warm interest in educational matters, although influenced somewhat by propagandist interests. (e) The school's function is to do what all the other institutions and agencies fail to do. As modern society becomes more and more complex the duty of furnishing vocational training by formal public education is continually enlarging. The schools, especially the high schools, are nobly, yet still inadequately, facing and solving the problem. The universities, colleges, and junior colleges might profit from the example of the initiative and leadership now blazing the trail on the lower high-school level.

2. *Preparation for what?*—Briefly, the work of preparing the future laborer for social service includes efforts aimed at increasing efficiency in production, equity in distribution, and wisdom in consumption; that is, at social efficiency in the major economic processes. Also, it should be insisted, the preparation should not neglect the opportunities and duties of citizenship in all of its major and

minor aspects. Each of these phases of the preparation of the workers, who should include all of us, will be discussed briefly in turn.

Social efficiency in production includes five principal elements: technical efficiency, ability in selling the labor commodity, joy and benefit in work, coöperation, and participation in management.

(1) *Technical marginal efficiency* in producing tangible goods or in rendering services is, of course, basic to the social efficiency of the worker. No service is higher or of more importance than the production of useful goods. I said marginal efficiency above because the social worth of a man's labor is proportional to the social demand for its products. Vocational guidance and vocational education should, therefore, take account of the probable future demand for the various types of labor and of the present number in training to meet that demand. This involves much statistical but very necessary research. In short, education should attempt not only to furnish technical and liberal training, but also to give such farsighted vocational guidance that a proper balance of the various types of labor may be preserved. Still more briefly, education should apply the economic law of variable proportions.

(2) *Ability in marketing the labor commodity* is essential to the worker's permanent and satisfactory service. Low pay means ineffective work and a small share of the social dividend. The worker must continue indefinitely to bargain with employers in fixing the terms of the labor contract, including the rate of wages, hours of labor, and all of the conditions attending employment. His welfare depends largely upon his individual and collective ability to meet employers on an equality in the bargaining process. Education should not neglect this aspect of his preparation, which involves much attention to liberal, as distinguished from technical, education with some training in salesmanship.

(3) *The ability to enjoy and benefit from work activities*

is indispensable to a high degree of welfare. Such ability largely determines organic income. Goods produced are meant ultimately to furnish satisfaction in use. Total satisfaction is added to if joy attends the production of goods later to be used and enjoyed. It is net satisfaction, or total satisfaction less total human dissatisfaction, that counts in estimating the social subjective dividend. Further, most economic goods are beneficial to the consumer. The total of benefits is greater if benefit attends the productive efforts of the worker. Again, it is net benefit that counts in estimating the social objective or vital income. The sum of the net subjective and objective incomes constitutes the net organic income.

Education can and should do much to lessen irksomeness and injury on the job and to promote pleasure and benefit in work activity. The performance of this duty necessitates liberalizing the vocational program. Liberal education does not mean giving attention especially to the so-called "cultural" subjects. It means any educational element or procedure that widens the horizon of the worker's intellectual vision, that increases his insight into the social, industrial, and individual problems that he must face, that gives him an understanding of the larger technical processes of which his particular job is a part, and that furnishes him with a fuller knowledge of the social significance of his personal contribution to the general social order and a keener appreciation of his debts and obligations to that order. Obviously, what is most liberal in this sense to one man is probably not so to another. The problem of individual differences obtains in the field of liberal as well as in that of vocational education. This does not imply neglecting the important aim of social integration and resulting social solidarity, but merely giving to each worker what will help him most in solving the general problems of life that inevitably must confront him. This liberal training means not only greater insight into social life and increased enjoyment in one's work but also a greater total of exchange-

able products, for joy in work means more efficient work. Briefly, to liberalize and humanize the worker means to put the "creative impulse" into industry.

(4) *The inclination and ability to coöperate* with fellow workmen and with employers in the common work of production are traits rapidly becoming indispensable in industry. Complexity and interdependence of function demand coöperation among the workers. Antagonism between the capitalist on one side and labor on the other is extremely wasteful of both capital and effort. Coöperation in industry in its widest sense must in the general social interest replace conflict. Labor's greatest opportunity for elevating its power, prestige, and pay lies in viewing its contribution as part of a general coöperative program. In doing the things that mean increased production and resulting social service, workers do the very things that will contribute most to their welfare. The more goods that are produced the more there are to go around and hence the greater the individual shares. For the same reason the lower will be prices and hence the more that can be bought with money wages. Further, the more that is produced under competitive conditions the greater usually are the profits of entrepreneurs. This fact means the encouragement of enterprise in general to invest, expressed either by the enlargement of existing plants or the opening of new ones. In any case, increased investments will result in a greater demand for labor and hence higher wages. Coöperation brings about not only higher pay but also better general working conditions. It makes for a better understanding between the employer and his employees, a fuller supplying of the latter's needs on the job, and a sympathetic concern on the part of each for the welfare of the other. In short, coöperation means what Carver calls the "higher strategy" of labor; and, as this writer reminds us, following the injunction of the Master: He who would be greatest among you let him be most the servant of all.

This prescription of service applies to capital and its

owners as well as to labor. What is coöperatively produced can never intelligently be viewed as private property in the absolute sense that others have no interest in its use. Wealth as property is possible only under the protection and guardianship of the State. Land values especially are the result of the silent contribution of society. What is owned under these social sanctions and support ought to be viewed largely as a public trust and administered with some regard for the general good. Education can do more than it is now doing to develop the coöperative spirit and give to future employers and employees alike the understanding that theirs is a mutual undertaking, that neither is efficient without the help of the other, that both owe most of what they are and have to society at large, and that the general welfare should be their coöperative concern.

(5) *The ability to control industry* by labor, as gradually the democratic spirit gains control of industrial ideals, is becoming a pressing aim in the education of the worker. Signs are everywhere in evidence that labor is gaining more and more influence in the control of industry. Numerous labor banks, widespread ownership by wage earners of corporation shares of stock, and employee representative committees are outstanding examples of these signs. It is true that the control exercised by labor is so far an appearance rather than a reality. Yet labor if it wished might through stock purchase gain control of many of our leading industries in a relatively short time. Whether such purchase would be wise or not depends upon the stability and dividend-yielding power of the stock, and also upon the ability of the new stockholders to guide wisely the policies of the business. Certainly to purchase stock to the point of gaining control of an industry only to have it go on the rocks would be folly indeed. However, it is probable that the workers will gradually, as time passes, obtain wider control of the industries in the nation. What is now something of a shadow resembling control will no doubt in time become something of a reality.

The welfare of all demands that workers be trained for such an important responsibility. The fathers at the birth of the nation urged that political democracy demanded training for citizenship if the nation and its institutions were to endure. For the same reason coming industrial democracy demands training of the workers for participation in guiding the fortunes of industry if the present industrial order is to be preserved or be fully efficient. That American workers to some extent sense the responsibility of their growing power is evidenced by their consistent widespread rejection of extreme radicalism in this country. Wider and more liberal education will increase this feeling of social responsibility and also the stability and farsightedness of their policies, thereby reducing the chances of catastrophe that would follow the exercise of power in the hands of the unwise. The need for such training is more urgent than many educators, blinded by concern for immediate technical efficiency, seem to think. Educational policy, like all policies, is wise to the extent that it is farsighted and guided by concern for ultimate consequences. The philosophy of narrow individualism and immediateness in control of education would prepare the way and furnish the pitfalls for our final destruction. To him who is to have power must be given wisdom; and, let it be emphasized, this wisdom must be social wisdom.

It must continually be kept in mind that the present school workers who are preparing to perform the world's work of tomorrow are also to be the future citizens of the republic. Their problems will not be industrial, technical, and financial only. As parents and as possessors of sovereign political power they will either succeed or fail in performing the duties incidental to the grave responsibilities involved. How well they are to carry these burdens depends largely upon the kind and quality of education they are receiving. Clearly it ought not to be merely technical or narrowly vocational, or guided by narrowly trained teachers. I have already called attention to the fact that the

growing share of the workers in the control of industry demands a type of education that will make them wise in management and justify the measure of power entrusted to them. Citizenship in industry is twin to citizenship politically. As citizens of the nation they will be called upon more and more as time passes to participate through elected representatives in making laws aimed at the regulation and control of business and industry generally. If the workers are unwise as voters and as moulders of public opinion, little can reasonably be expected in the way of wise legislation and law observance. On the other hand, to the extent the workers are wise as citizens legislation will be wise and obeyed. All this makes a further demand for that type of education called liberal as defined earlier in this paper.

The end of education and of industry is man. The end should never be subordinated to the minor position of means. A man is a man on the job in spite of efforts and arguments to make him otherwise. Management in industry ought never to view the workers as mere instruments of production. Public education should never prostitute itself by being an ally of those business managers and employers who are blind to all else but dividends. The glory of humanity is found in the joy, dignity, wisdom, usefulness, and coöperative spirit of human life. Education ought to promote these things among all the children of all the people. Of course, a human life is much short of its fullest glory if it is economically unproductive. On the other hand, it is also far short of complete self-realization if it is merely productive of tangible economic goods. The abundant life is realized when it is full to overflowing of service to other persons and to society at large, and when the service activities are attended by maximum joy and self-improvement. Education should aim at nothing short of the abundant life for all and not merely for the privileged few. Its achievement demands a rich program. Niggardliness at the heart of the social body means a lowered vitality in the whole organism.

HOW SHALL WE EDUCATE? THE UNITARY AIM OF EDUCATION

EDWARD F. WALDRON

In the confusion of contemporary texts on the psychology of education, remedial instruction, educational objectives, etc., we find various aims of education presented. These may be a part or all of the educational program as seen by a particular author; but most of the writers on education see many aims rather than one. This contrasts with the everyday experience in driving an automobile. In this we need to see the whole road as well as the immediate situation, never losing sight of the general direction of the highway while handling each immediate situation. Educators, thinking of their work, strangely enough see the immediate problem only and are oblivious to the whole road.

If we look at the "whole road" first, we must agree that there has really been but one definition of education. That is: "training for social efficiency." There are many ways and means of arriving at social efficiency; but we cannot secure it without defining it. This definition involves a knowledge and understanding of our environment, or at least an idea of our society and how it is moving.

Unfortunately, when we attempt to secure a clear definition, we enter forthwith a maze of facts, statistics, and ideas. These may be essentially similar in significance; but no two persons give any group of words exactly the same meanings. Hence, discussion passes from the larger issues to the immediate smaller parts that make up education, and on which verbal differences make us appear to differ. In Spartan days, in the Middle Ages, or in American Indian communities, the entire social life was sufficiently simple to enable an average person to gain a clear notion of social efficiency. No arguments as to content of education could arise. As life became more complicated, the

stress in education appeared to be laid upon our inheritance from the past—perhaps with the tacit implication that we could later, by virtue of our innate abilities, develop “automatically” to effective citizenship.

Thus, religious training was largely “automatic” in those simpler days. With church and government very closely allied, as in early Colonial days, a large part of education was within the unavoidable social experience of every person. The Colonial schools did not pretend to care for the whole task of education but simply gave the child a fundamental equipment with which to acquire an education. This education was most often secured in the field of “hard knocks.” As with all religions throughout history, social and moral codes tending to develop proper behavior came through social experience within the church.

As modern civilization developed, church and government became divorced. This happened most quickly and fully in America. The same historical development separated the schools from the church, giving us three essential socially regulative bodies: church, school, and government. The government itself was controlled by the product of the churches and the schools; but the separation of church from school eliminated certain direct social contacts. The response to this lack has been to make moral and social training an essential part of the school program. Such training might not be necessary if we were a completely churchgoing people with churches all performing their functions completely. (Such a situation, with one hundred per cent effective churches attended by one hundred per cent of the people, may conceivably be attained, if religion is seized by the modern spirit and turns to human needs instead of worrying about nonessential dogmas.)

Other phases of our mode of living have so altered that the American home is no longer a genuinely social center. The loss of this center in which parents and children influenced each other's ideals has also removed the education due to imitation of elders in the home circle. The oncom-

ing generation imitates only obvious or public behaviors rather than the more idealistic ones existing in the home.

Nevertheless, the oncoming generation is entitled to be brought up to be socially efficient. Many agencies towards this end that have been working "automatically" are not operating as well or as fully as they did. The public naturally turns to the school as the recognized institution of education and says: "You are not educating as you should."

Meanwhile, modern invention, increasing the facilities for communication, travel, and transportation, has made social life conspicuously more complicated. New activities have carried the individual from life in an isolated community into a larger and larger field, making him now a citizen of the world. He is not limited in contact to an area of thirty or forty square miles (as in the past), but is affected by and affects the entire world. People have not only grouped themselves in urban communities, but have allowed themselves to become dependent upon rural districts either adjacent or distant for the very necessities of life. These congestions and contacts have brought new problems of sanitation and cleanliness to the various communities. With this development, the school systems have been adding to their curricula in order that the children might "inherit" a more complete knowledge of the achievements of the past. With this knowledge they are supposed to study further and become socially efficient.

At this point the difficulty appears. Subjects have been added—first one and then another—until Payson Smith of Massachusetts says, "I hope that some day we shall have a Reading Day, Writing Day, and Arithmetic Day put on the school calendar, that we may remember for what the schools were originally founded." Even this statement misses the real problem in education. The psychologists, faced with the many subjects to be taught, found that instruction must be made more efficient. They analyzed the learning processes themselves, discovering such fundamen-

tal facts as: how habits are formed; associative memorizing; interests as a motivator. As we might expect, only one phase was analyzed—how to do the traditional school job better. The task was not questioned.

These discoveries led to further studies as to just what could be done to make learning interesting. We revert unwittingly to the theories of Rousseau, with the belief that learning is an outgrowth of the impulses of the child and that all children have great possibilities if allowed to develop freely. We naturally avoid Rousseau's omission in letting Emile develop as that youngster himself wished and thus become an unusual person. But we carry forward, with due regard for social needs, the same fundamental type of education. A fine example of such work is recorded in Dr. Hughes Mearns's book, *Creative Youth*. The outcome is now known as a "child-centered school" and is a conspicuous, useful, new variety of education. Such schools conduct their work with the avowed aim of utilizing at all times the interests of the children. Some guide these interests, and some do not. They mark a decided step forward, towards creative work, with retentive and more effective learning. Schools are being created in which Thomas Edison could have found a place and received his education far more comfortably and quickly than he did.

We now approach the main problem: What should be taught in such a creative school that a child may become socially efficient?

First, it is obviously essential that a socially efficient person shall be able to read and write well, to keep constantly in touch with the world's development and to communicate with other members of society. For effective coöperation with his neighbors, he should have some knowledge of mathematics to solve such numerical situations as may confront him. Perhaps even more important is it that he should be physically fit. This implies that he should have such muscular and bodily coördinations that he may use his hands and senses to appreciate and enjoy the environment

in which he lives. He must have such knowledge of the development and problems of his own people and those of other times and places that he may judge justly the value of the changes in his own social surroundings. He must, last but perhaps most important, have such moral or social training that he may become a part of the society in which he lives, meeting its demands enjoyably without friction. When these large groups of educational content are taught, with due consideration for the interests of the child and with due attention to his limits of comprehension, it should be possible to develop socially efficient citizens.

Our curriculum may thus be divided into four fundamental groups.

The first group we choose to call "mathematics." It includes only such basal mathematical operations as it is necessary to know in an entirely automatic manner for any effective use. Drill methods, carefully selected for good motives and interest and complete learning, are the indicated procedure.

A second group we may call "English." It includes the drill portion of the ordinary English program. In this group we have such portions of language activity as are essential to the development of what is often called "tool facility." Spelling and penmanship are of course within this group—taught with due regard to social effectiveness as an aim and not with any view of theoretical completeness.

The third field, a very vital group, may be labeled "social studies." In reality, it is a unitary study of society. The radical departure from present procedure lies in this portion of the educative task. A student today may be studying English literature, United States history, the geography of South America, the science of Germany, the art of the Italians, the music of the French, the folk dances of Sweden, the hygiene of our own community, and the handwork of some other nation! What a hodgepodge! Can we wonder that some children become scatter brained, when we see this neglect of associations, interests, and a

focus of learning—all insisted on by the psychologists as needful for effective learning.

The plan is here suggested that we make one large unit in this group, in which we combine literature, civics, history, geography, science, and hygiene in their actual human interrelationships. This far transcends the scope of a "unified social science" as hesitatingly tried out in some contemporary school systems, and is designed to link each and every one of these subheads of human activity and knowledge to the interests that the children already possess.

Our fourth group, named "physical studies" or "motor subjects," will include physical training, manual training, art, and music. These are to be interrelated, as with the social studies, and are to be tied to the interests aroused, the knowledges gained, and the attitudes produced by the social subject matter. The confusion that children get by the demarcation of narrow but overlapping fields of knowledge will vanish.

Within these four groupings, opportunities offer for doing much of the needed social and moral training. The opportunities are embarrassingly many. The unitary nature of the groupings avoids duplication of effort and provides single foci of attention.

All that has hitherto been said has purposely been written from the point of view of subject matter rather than that of child expression. The purpose is to coördinate subject matter so that there is opportunity for self-expression to operate fully. The hint has been derived from the experience of teachers with the project organization of school work, in which subject-matter boundaries have had to be crossed and creative activity has flourished to the extent that this was done. We cite the case of investigating the Pilgrim fathers and the Puritan colonies. Their history is controlled by the rigorous New England climate; their art and literature show the impress of hardship and frugality; their home comforts were limited by their small

knowledge of science. The child must dip into geography, hygiene, and science, to get any grasp of the history, art, literature, and life conditions of the New England colonies.

Such educative activity is in marked contrast to the educational practice that exists. Despite all attempts to avoid it, we require children to assimilate in memory various unrelated facts and to learn to habituate certain practices. These must be held in "mental cold storage" until they are required—perhaps in adult life.

The unifying thread that unites the four groups into one dominant educational purpose of social efficiency is self-expression. Even in the mathematical and language-drill fields, this activity is possible; this is the activity for which the proviso was made in describing these fields. The social and motor fields give the children the opportunity to live through the existence of the past and to evolve into their own conscious social life. They cannot do this without abundant opportunities for self-expression, and they cannot use these opportunities without developing social judgments. Thus self-expression becomes the unifying method of producing the socially effective citizen.

We live, as has so often been insisted upon by thoughtful educators, in a world that has rapidly changed and that continues to change even more rapidly. The unitary arrangement of subject matter provides the factual and habit background for coping with such a world; and the self-activity is designed to develop the complex group of reactions labeled "judgment." The unitary arrangement of subject matter, divided into four groups only for convenience in administration, is further designed to prevent loss of educative results after school years are ended. Without it, self-expression may develop judgment; but judgment without adequate facts and attitudes is ineffective.

Only when the background and the judgment are both developed can the schools produce socially effective citizens. Only with unified subject matter and the guiding thread of self-expression, through the treatment of the curriculum, can the schools train adequately for social efficiency.

THE HOME AS A TEACHER-TRAINING AGENCY

G. G. HILL and P. W. HUTSON

We who are engaged in teacher training are much gratified by the increasing recognition of the need for professional education for the teacher. In our satisfaction with this trend there is danger that we shall overestimate the value of what we do in preparing teachers for service. It must be remembered that the teacher-training institution does not begin its work upon the aspirant for the profession until after he has grown to adulthood; he has passed through his most plastic years; he has been subjected to a myriad of environmental influences; and he arrives upon the campus with an equipment of which we have no very significant inventory and to which we can add relatively little.

Considering, then, the limitations under which we labor in *training* teachers, it follows that we may perform a signal service by *selecting* teachers, especially in these days when we are blessed with such an abundance of candidates. To date, however, we have performed that function only with standards of intellectual capacity and attainment in mind. High-school graduates are an intellectually selected group, and those who seek training for the teaching profession come from this group. Further selection goes on while students are passing through the professional school, and the basis is almost always that of scholarship. This emphasis on the intellectual quality of the teacher has resulted in such a product that seldom indeed is a teacher dismissed for lack of scholarship.

But studies of the causes of teacher failure show that most dismissals are attributed to weaknesses in character and personality. As an example, we may look at the most frequently mentioned causes of failure found by Nanninga¹ in his canvass of the opinions of a large number of school

¹S. P. Nanninga, "Teacher Failures in High Schools," *School and Society*, XIX (January 19, 1924), pp. 79-82.

administrators in several Western States. A portion of his tabulation is as follows:

<i>Reasons</i>	<i>Frequency</i>
Discipline	38
Coöperation	33
Poor instruction	16
Preparation	16
Lack of interest.....	14
Lazy	12
Judgment	10

Defects in character and personality are denoted by all of these reasons except the third and fourth which may be said to signify shortcomings in elements which teacher-training institutions quite definitely aim to supply.

A similar list is that assembled by Morrison,² derived from his record of forty interviews with superintendents and school board members who came to him in quest of teachers. He classified the causes which led to the dismissal of teachers under the following headings, for each of which the numerical frequency of mention is given:

Poor discipline	17
Inability to coöperate.....	14
Gossip	11
Immorality, sexual	11
Lack of teaching skill.....	10
Disloyalty	9
Inability to get along with pupils.....	8
Unwise choice of social companions.....	8
No desire for professional growth.....	7
Irresponsibility	6
Critical of colleagues.....	6
Immediate departure from building at dismissal of pupils.....	5
Tardiness in reporting for duty.....	5
Laziness	5
Lack of school interest.....	5
No community interest.....	5

There were twenty-nine additional categories of causes, mentioned with frequencies of from one to four, of which

²R. H. Morrison, "Factors Causing Failure in Teaching," *Journal of Educational Research*, XVI (September, 1927), pp. 98-105.

only one—"Ignorance of school law"—may not be classified as a defect in character or personality. Of those here reproduced, the reader will note only one—"Lack of teaching skill"—which refers to such capacities as professional schooling may be expected to contribute. If it may be surmised by some that "poor discipline" refers primarily to the absence of a technique for which the training school is responsible, reference to Morrison's report of his investigations will show that such an opinion is hardly justified. He lists the seventeen items which he has classified under that rubric, and a casual reading shows that all are indicative of defects in character or personality.

Evidently, selection on the basis of character and personality is much needed, and the responsibility for exercising this function should devolve primarily upon the teacher-training rather than the teacher-hiring agency because the former has the best opportunity to discharge it. It is easier, however, to point out this task than to perform it.

The data which this article contributes afford no help in the form of ways and means. Perhaps, however, by illuminating a most important source from which the character and personality of the teacher are derived, the problem of securing teachers adequately endowed in these respects may be seen in truer perspective. The policies of many teacher-training institutions in admitting all high-school graduates, in asking for no entrance records except those pertaining to scholarship, and in making no organized analysis of their students during the course of training, all suggest that too little consideration is given to the effects already produced by earlier educational agencies. Psychologists assure us that the fundamental traits of character and personality are largely formed in very early life. Among the forces determining those qualities, none is of greater consequence than the home, and it is the purpose of this article to make home influence in the training of successful teachers more clear by presenting a partial analysis of it.

To procure the data for making the analysis, the procedure was as follows: From a list of six recent graduating classes of the Department of Commerce, State Teachers College, Indiana, Pa., the head of the department, with the advice of other members of his immediate faculty, selected the one hundred individuals who were most outstanding as successful teachers. Careful inquiry of all the principals, superintendents, and supervisors who had made professional contact with these teachers resulted finally in the list being reduced to seventy, due to the dropping of all those on whose standing as really excellent teachers any doubt was cast. To the parents of these selected young teachers of commercial subjects, a friendly letter was written, requesting them to write informally "some of the things you believe to be essential in training children—some of the things you have done in training yours." Sixty-two replies were received.

Each letter was analyzed for the training elements it had to yield, and during this process a classification and organization of the items was gradually worked out. When the organization was finally settled, the placing of each item was carefully checked. It must be obvious that the task of derivation of pertinent items from these letters and classifying them in discrete categories offered many difficulties. The letters presented ideals, practical ways and means, the results of experience, and baffling mixtures of generalities and specifics. Employment of such a source naturally involved a large degree of subjective judgment.

The following outline shows the items mentioned by five or more parents:

OUTLINE OF DESIRABLE ELEMENTS IN HOME TRAINING MOST FREQUENTLY
MENTIONED BY 62 PARENTS OF HIGHLY SUCCESSFUL TEACHERS

Frequencies

A. General home environmental factors

- I. Statements indicating general religious atmosphere in home
 1. Christian training in the home..... 11
 2. Christian ideals in the home..... 5
 3. Parental reliance on divine assistance..... 7

II. Parental devotion to task of bringing up children	
1. Father pays tribute to mother's devotion to children....	16
2. Parents coöperated, "pulled together".....	11
3. Miscellaneous statements of devotion to the task.....	34
III. Home training present and evident.....	9
IV. Parents maintaining youthful spirit.....	5
V. Attention to general atmosphere of the home, as:	
1. Making the house a home.....	5
2. Making the home a happy one.....	7
3. Creating proper home environment.....	14
4. Making home attractive.....	8
VI. Parental love for and pride in children.....	14
B. Influence through parental example of right living.....	30
C. Training	
I. Kinds of training	
1. Health (general and specific mentions).....	7
2. Towards specific character and personality traits, as follows:	
a) Virtue in general.....	24
b) Obedience to and respect for parents and elders....	49
c) Industry—especially as exemplified in the practice of useful home arts.....	26
d) Honesty	21
e) Respect for rights of others.....	20
f) High ideals and pure motives.....	17
g) Thrift	14
h) Love for home and parents.....	10
i) Studiousness	9
j) Truthfulness	9
k) Self-confidence	9
l) Ambition	8
m) Deference	7
n) Charity, broad-mindedness, tolerance.....	6
o) Sincerity	6
p) Good manners	6
q) Fairness	6
r) Sense of responsibility.....	5
s) Happiness	5
t) Earnestness—concern about life.....	5
u) Personal neatness	5
3. Religious	
a) Love and reverence for God.....	6
b) Knowledge of God's grace and demands.....	9

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c) To an observance of religious practices	
(1) Attending church	24
(2) Attending Sunday school.....	19
II. Time to begin training is in babyhood and early childhood..	41
III. Miscellaneous ways and means of training	
1. Negative statements	
a) Don't scold	5
b) Restrict the number of movies.....	5
c) Don't nag children.....	6
d) Place restrictions on going out.....	25
e) Don't let children run the streets.....	8
f) Don't neglect children by absence from home.....	13
g) Avoid unreliable nurses and guardians.	5
2. Positive statements	
a) Discipline properly	5
b) Lead children in the right direction.....	5
c) Use patience, tact, and diplomacy.....	5
d) Punish when necessary.....	7
e) Show appreciation of their abilities and accomplish- ments	17
f) Gain confidence of children.....	30
g) Explain proper things for children to do.....	18
h) Explain pitfalls to children.....	14
i) Rule with love but firmly.....	15
j) Be kind to children.....	6
k) Encourage reading good literature.....	8
l) Encourage school work	30
m) Help children choose proper companions.....	35
n) Treat children as children when young.....	5
o) Share pleasures with children.....	7
p) Be watchful over children—know where they are..	13
q) Allow proper amount of freedom.....	6
r) Get children's viewpoints and respect opinions.....	10
IV. Training through observance of recreational and social needs and tendencies	
1. Provide time for play and pleasure.....	5
2. Encourage good sports.....	5
3. Permit card playing and dancing in the home.....	5
4. Provide amusements in the home.....	11
5. Encourage parties	5
6. Encourage entertaining friends in the home.....	20
7. Supervise proper use of leisure time.....	5
V. Training through exercising certain attitudes towards chil- dren	
1. Sympathetic attention to childish interests and troubles..	19

	<i>Frequencies</i>
2. Close association fostered.....	49
3. Placing trust and confidence in children.....	28
4. Truthfulness with children.....	7

Three major divisions seemed necessary; namely, "General home environmental factors," "Influence through parental example of right living" (with no subdivisions), and "Training." Under the last of these the bulk of the items fell, and they seemed classifiable as "Kinds of training," "Time to begin training," "Miscellaneous ways and means of training," "Training through observance of recreational and social needs and tendencies," and "Training through exercising certain attitudes towards children." Scanning the outline as a whole, we sense the aspirations of these parents for their children and note the variety of procedures mentioned. There is much good practical psychology apparent, much evidence of a fine recognition of child nature and of human nature in general. Regardless of the informality and inadequacy of the source from which these data were gathered, and the fact that only those items mentioned with a frequency of five or more are here set forth, the limitless ramifications and the countless situations which the business of being a parent involves are rather well intimated in this outline. Here we have reemphasized the potency of the family as an educational institution. Here, indeed, are suggested the length, the breadth, and the depth of character and personality formation.

A comparison of this outline with the causes of teacher failure listed at the beginning of this article reveals the significance of the home as a teacher-training agency. The parents of these successful teachers have labored in the formative years to create in their children qualities which are the antitheses of those named as causing the failure of teachers. In some way, teacher-training institutions must take this influence more largely into account if they would send forth better teachers.

Furthermore, it is well to bear in mind that we may be

on the eve of a shift in our conception of school aims which will greatly accentuate the demand for truly splendid character and personality in the teacher. That will be the case if we accept the vision of Terman³ that "we shall in time place more emphasis than we do now upon the ethical and social ends of education and care more than we do now about making a school a wholesome place in which to live, . . . that we shall stress, to a greater degree than we now do, the child's attitudes and interests as contrasted with his scholastic achievement." Such a school can never be staffed with teachers who have "taken courses," "earned credits," and thereby acquired a showy veneer of learning. It will require leaders possessing thoroughly ingrained habits and ideals of the best citizenship, qualities of nobility not now assured by a college degree, and good principles that have become second nature through long usage.

³L. M. Terman, Editorial, *Journal of Educational Research*, XVII (January, 1923), p. 57.

RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

EDITORIAL NOTE: *It is designed to make this department a clearing house (1) for information about current research projects of interest to educational sociology and (2) for ideas with reference to research methods and techniques in this field.*

Readers are urged to report their own research projects and to submit information regarding other projects of which they have knowledge. Suggestions as to methods of research will be welcomed and will be given publicity in this department. Specimen questionnaires and plans for research in educational sociology will be given careful criticism if desired.

From time to time this department will also make its readers acquainted with research resources in educational sociology. Contributions of this type from readers will also be welcomed.

It is desirable to make the program of research in educational sociology a coöperative one. To this end the names and addresses of those engaged upon research projects will usually be given in order that readers may exchange with them ideas upon related projects.

SOCIAL ANTECEDENTS OF AN INTERSTITIAL AREA

A study of the social antecedents of an interstitial area in upper Manhattan, New York City, a district which is predominantly Italian, has been completed in connection with the Boys' Club Study of New York University.¹ The problem of this study involves the questions: how did this area become a slum? and what were its antecedents?

The study first takes up the settlement of the area, the uses to which it was put under Dutch and then English occupancy, and finally post-Revolution uses when the whole of upper Manhattan was built up with estates. The settlement and subsequent transitions from one use to another were accompanied and often dominated by changes in transportation facilities and land values which were equally significant.

With regard to the question as to why this district became a slum, it seems that the slum moved uptown with other

¹This statement has been provided through the courtesy of Mr. Nels Anderson who made the study.

uses of space, paralleling the migration of the rich and exclusive areas as it also did that of the slaughter houses, waste dumps, and shanty settlements. The occupants of the district had previously lived in other slums farther downtown. The movement uptown was generally from the less desirable to the more desirable dwellings. The first migrants from an old area into a new one were generally those who could pay the higher rent. Their places were taken by other slum dwellers moving in from still less desirable quarters.

Moving uptown, the slum went where it could; that is, where it was tolerated. The well-to-do moved uptown to the sites which were higher and more desirable for residential purposes and the slum followed to occupy the less desirable portions of the district. This movement was determined in general by a demand for housing which was generally outrunning the supply, putting a constant premium on speculation in real estate and building which in turn led to an equally insistent demand for improved transportation.

The first migration of the slum was determined by the reach of the new horse cars. When the horse car was replaced by the steam elevated lines and the cable street cars, there was another migration and the flats in the upper part of Manhattan which had formerly been only sparsely settled were built up solidly with tenements.

These flats, occupying much of the area of the district, had always been marshy with occasional inlets and ponds which were flushed by the tides. In the 1860's and 1870's the whole of the low area was used as a garbage dump and for years was a very offensive spot because of the odors emanating therefrom. This part of the area was occupied by the shanty population. It was thought that the area would ultimately be occupied by industry, but opposition from local residents forced the removal of the slaughterhouses and also a change in the methods of dumping garbage. The region therefore became a zone of tenements.

Perhaps the outstanding theme of this study is that the

growth of the city is a related phenomenon; that the growth of the slum, for instance, is only incidental to the development of other urban areas. While the slum is a changing fact, it is also a persistent fact. It submits to welfare efforts by migrating, but not without being changed somewhat. Thus, it remains a problem but not the same kind of problem. The data available do not reveal whether the evolution which finally results is due to reform and welfare movements or to the forces of competition.

This conclusion, namely, that there is logic in the existence, the nature, and the movements of the slum, while it is not new to social science, is not being recognized by either educators or social workers. Inasmuch as the problems with which they labor are so often the product of such a complex of forces, the responsibility comes to rest on educators and social workers to approach these problems with an ever-increasing perspective. So many modern social problems do involve the slum; but the slum itself is only one of many related phenomena in the total pattern of the city. The study, in calling attention to this fact, makes a contribution.

The methods of the study are essentially historical. The materials are presented descriptively according to topics but chronologically within each unit. The data were gathered from old New York newspaper files, from New York biographies, from public records, from old New York guides, and from other primary sources. The study includes twelve maps and a number of tables relative to population, housing, and changing land values.

CHILD GUIDANCE FELLOWSHIP

The Institute for Child Guidance for New York City² has offered six one-year fellowships in child guidance to psychiatrists (\$2,500 each) and three one-year fellowships to psychologists (\$1,500 each). Well-qualified persons in this field will be eligible to apply for the fellowship which

²Dr. Lawson G. Lowrey, 145 E. 57th Street, New York City.

will include a study of psychiatry, psychology, social service, and general medicine.

COMMISSION STUDIES PRISONS

A commission of seven members appointed by Governor Roosevelt and the legislature to study prison administration and construction is engaged in two specific studies of certain aspects of the New York State prison system. One of them is the problem of establishing a system for selecting men to be assigned to "nonsecurity" prisons; the other is examining and inspecting plans for types of new prison construction to be used as a basis of recommendation for New York State.

RESEARCH STUDIES IN EDUCATION

Recognizing the increasing importance of educational research and the enlarging literature on the subject, the office of education of the Department of the Interior has published a *Bibliography of Research Studies in Education: 1928-1929*.³ The purpose of the bibliography is to guide educational investigators through the literature and research studies in their specialized fields. The present bibliography aims to cover the entire field of educational research and "to serve as an aid to persons interested in any phase of educational investigation." It represents the third such list printed by the Office of Education and includes research studies in education completed during the school year 1928-1929.

In order to obtain the material for this volume, letters of inquiry were sent to all agencies known to be engaged in educational research, including colleges and universities, city and State research bureaus, and educational organizations. This bibliography lists the masters' and doctors' theses and other research investigations reported in reply to these letters. In addition to the studies reported, we have listed research articles which have appeared in various educational periodicals during the period covered. . . .

The annotations for many of the investigations were furnished by the author or the institution reporting the study; annotations for other studies and for the periodical articles have been made in

³Bulletin No. 23, 1930.

this office. Both published and unpublished studies are included in the list, with complete bibliographic data for each whenever the information was available. The unpublished studies are for the most part masters' and doctor's theses.⁴

In addition to a special listing for educational sociology research studies bearing on the following topics will be of particular interest to educational sociology: International Aspects of Education, Child Study, Educational Research, Individual Differences, Special Subjects of Curriculum, Teacher Training, Professional Status of Teachers, Higher Education, School Administration, School Management, Health Education, Physical Training, Play and Recreation, Social Aspects of Education, Child Welfare, Rural Education, Moral Education, Religious and Church Education, Manual and Vocational Training, Educational and Vocational Guidance, Civic Education, Education of Women, Education of Racial Groups, and Education of Exceptional Children.

⁴Bulletin No. 23, pp. IX-X.

BOOK REVIEWS

The Long View, by MARY E. RICHMOND. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1930, 648 pages.

Readers of this volume will be continually impressed with Mary Richmond, not only as a woman but as a social worker. Her breadth of knowledge, her understanding of people and their motives, and her strength of personality made her one of the leaders of this century. Social work meant more to her than giving alms or securing employment. It meant a life of service dedicated to the analysis of forces which affect the social life of a community. Her foresight enabled her to contribute immeasurably to our program of social betterment.

In *The Long View* she discusses among other things the technique of casework, the relationship of agencies and organizations, the war and its effect upon community and home life, and that ever present problem of employment.

Miss Richmond devoted her life to the study of civilization and its problems. Her unusual experience and familiarity with all phases of social work prepared her to be a prophet of her time. She welcomed new ideas and calmly evaluated them without fear on the basis of her own practical interpretation of the need. Her attitude cannot be better stated than in her own words, "The radicals think I'm a conservative and the conservatives think I'm a radical and they're both surprised that I manage to keep in the procession."

The philosophy which underlies Miss Richmond's ideals of social work emphasizes the position which all those working for a cause might well emulate, "the art of doing different things for and with different people by coöperating with them to achieve at one and the same time their own and society's betterment."

Those who seek a better understanding of the problems underlying social progress will, through this book, become orientated and learn "to take the long view, to realize that the very stars in their courses, not our small army alone, are overcoming the weakness and misery of the world."

RHEA KAY BOARDMAN

City Noise, Report of the Noise Abatement Commission of the City of New York. New York: The Academy Press, 1930, 301 pages.

The problem of health of the present time consists fundamentally in the adaptation of the individual to his complex environment. The development of modern civilization has brought with it numerous problems, such as the selection of food, the provision of adequate exercise and recreation, the adjustment to the complexities of the street and other urban life.

Among the problems affecting health and physical fitness is that of noise and this is particularly vital to the New Yorker surrounded by subways, elevated roads, automobiles, radios, and the countless thousands of noise-making devices incident to our city life.

A recent study of city noise by a commission appointed by Dr. Shirley W. Wynne, Commissioner of Health of New York City, gives a comprehensive report of the effect of noise upon health and physical fitness in the City of New York. The limitation of space prevents an adequate treatment of this extraordinary report. It is, however, sufficient to say that Dr. Wynne has selected an outstanding committee of specialists and they have prepared a report that every citizen and particularly every educator in the metropolitan area should read.

General familiarity with the facts presented in this report ought to bring about a marked change for the better in the conditions reported.

E. GEORGE PAYNE

Rural Social Science, by GUSTAV A. LUNDQUIST and CLYDE B. MOORE. New York: Ginn and Company, 1929, 467 pages.

Rural Social Science is a first effort to provide a textbook for students of the rural high school. Is there a rural problem separate and distinct from urban or national life? The authors of the volume have decided that such a problem exists and have set about writing a treatise to help "socialize secondary education through social science by acquainting the student with American life." The method of treatment is historical and evolutionary. Much of the material in the volume was tried out by rural high-school teachers in manuscript form. This should add to its validity and usefulness. There are eight parts to the book. These are, rural social background, moral and mental factors, rural social factors, religions, activities, education, political institutions, economics, and social service and leadership. Thus the authors have attempted to give a composite treatment of the problem of rural life. The book is not without its faults, but in a pioneer production they seem inconsequential and will not be noted here. Suggested reading lists, problems for discussion, illustrations, graphs, and tables are an added feature of the volume. The reviewer commends the authors in their undertaking and recommends the book as a helpful guide in understanding rural community life.

BENJAMIN FLOYD STALCUP

Introduction to Rural Sociology, by CHARLES RUSSELL HOFFER. New York: Richard R. Smith, Inc., 1929, 418 pages.

Here is a volume that has grown out of the author's ten years of experience teaching rural sociology to students in liberal arts and agricultural colleges. It is a "sociological interpretation of facts pertaining

to rural life that appear to have significance in all sections of the country," chiefly on the level of an applied science. Researches in the field of rural and agricultural life have been widely used as sources of data of the book.

The contents of the book fall into three parts: Part I, the rural population and its characteristics and made up of nine chapters; Part II, rural social institutions of five chapters; and Part III, rural social organization of six chapters.

The book is written in an easy, interesting style. The author has made a serious constructive effort to formulate a science of rural life. The intelligent layman as well as the college student will find the volume useful and helpful in understanding the growing problems of the increasingly class-conscious agriculturists. Our legislative halls ring with the voice of the rural-minded leader, as well as the critic of the former. In reality, the problems of one or the problems of the other. One lays the book down with a feeling that the rural life is but one segment of our national life and social and economic development.

BENJAMIN FLOYD STALCUP

Community Conflict. New York: The Inquiry, 1929, 156 pages.

Social conflict as a basis of interest and investigation has been returned to the category of problems of vital importance and significance to the sociologist and students of social and community life. *Community Conflict* is a constructive attempt by the use of case studies in social conflict to give helpful guidance to community leaders through discussion outlines. It is the belief of the authors of the volume that conflict may be resolved through discussion. The conception is simple, reasonable, and common sense; in practice it has been effective. To those interested in better community relationships and leadership, this handbook is suggestive, usable, and meets the problem concretely and scientifically.

BENJAMIN FLOYD STALCUP

Pupil Citizenship, by GEORGE W. DIEMER and BLANCHE V. MULLEN. Yonkers-on-Hudson: World Book Company, 1930, 339 pages.

The writers of our civic-education program have been telling us for some time that ready-made knowledge about our civic life, gained in school, in and through an arbitrary teacher-controlled environment, is sterile and futile. Direct knowledge of civic duties does not make good active citizens. The volume herein reviewed leaves behind the "deferred values" of the older conception of education and emphasizes "training in citizenship." The authors believe that the civic-social life of the school shall be the basis of the educative process. Further, that the interest of the pupil, pupil participation, and shared responsibility are

basic to the new education for good citizenship. This manual and guide for the teacher is organized in two parts; the first three chapters set forth the principles and standard. The remaining chapters, IV to XIII, are devoted to the suggested practical programs. The programs of activities make use of the homeroom, the organizations in the school, the school papers, the bulletin boards, the health, the safety, the thrift, and the reading activities of the pupils. None of this program is thought of as extracurricular. The book has behind it the further merit of practical experimentation and adaptation in a teachers college and certain schools in the public schools of Kansas City. The volume gives useful and helpful guidance to the teachers of civic education.

BENJAMIN FLOYD STALCUP

Sin and the New Psychology, by CLIFFORD E. BARBOUR.
New York: The Abingdon Press, 1930, 269 pages.

This book is one of the most stimulating and challenging that has come to the reviewer's attention for some time. The author assumes that the behavioristic approach leads to pure mechanism and that the behaviorist considers man as a robot or a machine. The author fails to take into account that there are several kinds or schools of behaviorism. In his search for a psychology that will reveal the cause of man's purposive strivings, he turns to psychoanalysis. For him, the psychoanalysts are the new psychologists. "Dr. Barbour is confronted not with denunciation but with reasoned argument, the fairly common view that there is no such thing as sin in the Christian sense because 'complexes' now are all. So far from an internecine conflict obtaining between Christian teaching about sin and the new psychology he urges that in a very real degree they are pursuing the same end. The method of psychotherapy, as he contends, is in principle identical with that which Christianity employs for the cure and eradication of sin. Psychic evil (or moral diseases) and sin are not the same; but, as is here shown, a real and sympathetic comparison can be drawn between the redemptive proposals of the Christian gospel and the process of psychoanalysis." It is from this point of view that the author treats of such major topics as temptation and the unconscious, conscience and ambivalence, the inferiority complex, repression, transference, and sublimation. The ideas of Christian thinkers of the past are translated into the technical language of the psychoanalyst. In fact, "psychoanalysis actually offers confirmatory evidence to the teaching of the Christian Church regarding the nature and action of sin and the method of achieving freedom from sin." In other words, psychoanalysis is a new witness to the truth of Christ. Psychoanalysis is bent on aiding man to harmony within himself and in his finite environment; Christianity goes further, and seeks to cure sin by putting him right with God. Included in the discussion are interesting chapters on: Importance of the Study, A Sketch of the New Psychology, The Christian Doctrine of Sin, Psychic

Evil and the Science of Sin, Original Sin and the Unity of the Race, Temptation and the Unconscious Impulse, Conscience and Ambivalence, The Sense of Guilt and the Inferiority Complex, Complexes and Repression, Forgiveness and Transference, Sanctification and Sublimation.

The book is written in an interesting style. The author shows a thorough knowledge of psychoanalysis. In the reviewer's judgment it is erroneous to identify the new psychology with psychoanalysis rather than the *Gestalt* psychology or any other of the several existing brands. It appears that the author neither understands the limitations of psychoanalysis nor the viewpoints of the behaviorists, functionalists, configurationists, and purposivists. Sin might be treated equally well from any of these standpoints. While psychoanalysis may contribute much to its understanding, there is no reason why any one should believe that it is the only approach to the subject.

CHARLES E. SKINNER

Piloting Your Life, by JOSEPH JASTROW. New York: Greenberg, 1930, 372 pages.

This is a companion volume to the author's *Keeping Mentally Fit*, and like it, it is a compilation of short sketches which appeared in newspapers over a period of time.

In the first volume the author "undertook to familiarize the lay mind with the message and finds of modern psychology in all the many aspects in which the interpretation of our mental nature affects behavior." The author finds a dominant note in the guidance towards better control of the mind's machinery.

In this volume the writer assembles the scattered precepts and principles in an informal way. The attempt was made to popularize the trend of the subject that is so frequently expressed in academic terms.

Topics covered in this work include the temper of childhood, the adult stature, the gist of heredity, the play of environment, varieties of endowment, disabilities, hampering trends, mental hygiene, the normal way, attitudes, aspects, shifting horizons, principles of issues, the human documents.

The book is well adapted to lay minds. The style, while simple, is not always easy. At times the discussions become tedious. The author, however, has done creditable work in his attempt to popularize psychology. The majority of popularizers in the past have been pseudo-psychologists, rather than psychologists. A work such as this will be read by many psychologists as well as lay readers.

CHARLES E. SKINNER

Statistics for Teachers, by ERNEST W. TIEGS and CLAUDE C. CRAWFORD. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1930, 212 pages.

In recent years there has been a number of elementary and advanced

texts and workbooks in educational statistics. This publication is a notable addition to the list. Simplicity is achieved without neglecting any of the essential techniques. A practical emphasis is given by numerous illustrations and suggested applications of statistical methods to educational data. These features are in harmony with the purpose as stated, "to meet the needs of the very large number of unspecialized educational workers" (p. ix).

There is nothing unique in the general outline of topics, but the chapters on "Why Study Statistics," "Labor Saving Devices," and "Principles of Statistical Research" are especially valuable additions. The true-false tests and questions at the end of chapters should be of aid to students. The type, binding, and general appearance of the text are commendable.

The advanced student in the field of statistics will note the omission of many details which might have been included to advantage, but in view of the authors' stress upon "minimum essentials" this cannot be used as a point of criticism. Such additions may be made by the instructor as needed.

PAUL V. WEST

A Problem-Outline in Principles and Techniques of Educational Measurement, by MAXWELL G. PARKS. New York: The Century Co., 1930, 134 pages.

This book is organized in fifteen units. The first fourteen lay the foundation of principles and techniques and the fifteenth study lists some two hundred and fifty standard tests with outlines for appraising them. Each of the first fourteen units on the principles of measurement is in four parts: (a) the statement of the problem (with numerous references cited and questions asked, to point the discussion); (b) assigned laboratory exercises; (c) some form of student report on the work done in the laboratory section; (d) a series of true-false questions on the unit that may be used for testing or discussion or both. This problem outline should be very profitably used in courses in educational measurement.

DONALD SNEDDEN

College Biology, by HENRY R. BARROWS. New York: Richard R. Smith, 1930, 414 pages.

College Biology is more the sort of book that goes well with a pipe, a deep comfortable chair, and a reflective mood of several hours' duration than the traditional college-level textbook with its columns of careful taxonomical data. But *College Biology* was designed for the exacting demands of systematic education. It is an exceptionally teachable book. The subject matter is comprehensive enough to satisfy any but the most fossilized academician. Its flexible organization makes it adaptable to a wide range of uses; from a basic course for further work in the science to a "one course" in general biology. A proper con-

sideration has been given to the study of those "types" that are demonstrable in the lecture room or laboratory. An abundance of uniquely large and clear diagrams supplement the text.

The organization of the book centers about three large biological conceptions: that life is a phenomenon of protoplasm, the cell, and organized aggregates of cells; that life has existed for a long time on the earth and tends to maintain its morphological and physiological continuity; that the equilibrium of life is constantly shifting grows from a consideration of the history of organic evolution. The evidences and theories of human evolution are developed at length. The relatively great amount of attention given to human biology, especially to the modern tendencies in endocrinology, neurology, genetics, evolution, and anthropology is very gratifying. The book is well indexed and there is a helpful appendix consisting of short biographies, a bibliography, and a glossary.

CHARLES E. RENN

A First Book About Chaucer, by DOROTHY MARTIN. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1930, 120 pages.

This little book, with its intriguing picture of England's "first warbler" and his England, its sympathetic estimate of his art, and its intimate bits about his tales, forever young with the youth of human nature, should make the youthful reader eager to know, first hand, him of whom Dryden said, "Here is God's Plenty."

ALFRED PEGUES

A First Book About Shakespeare, by DOROTHY MARTIN. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1930, 120 pages.

To the young reader who knows but little about the greatest English poet, this little book, in simple, clear, vivid language, with helpful illustrations and in attractive format, should come as a friend in need. In addition to the interesting story of the poet's life, the chapters recounting the various kinds of his plays and particularly the story of a representative of each kind, should send the young student eagerly to the plays themselves.

ALFRED PEGUES

Acknowledging the receipt of the following review copies of books sent to THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY, reviews of which will appear in early issues of THE JOURNAL:

Abnormal Psychology, by H. L. HOLLINGWORTH. New York: Ronald Press Company

Are We Civilized? by ROBERT H. LOWIE. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company

Comparative Pupil Achievement, by M. J. VAN WAGENEN. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press

- Educational Yearbook of the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University*, 1929. Edited by I. L. KANDEL. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University
- History of Physical Education in Colleges for Women*, by DOROTHY S. AINSWORTH. New York: A. S. Barnes and Company
- Kuhlman-Binet Tests*, by FLORENCE L. GOODENOUGH. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press
- Measurement of Man*, by J. A. HARRIS, C. M. JACKSON, D. G. PATTERSON, and R. E. SCAMMON. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press
- Methods in Social Science*, edited by STUART A. RICE. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press
- New Generation*, by V. F. CALVERTON and SAMUEL D. SCHMALHAUSEN. New York: The Macaulay Company
- New Girls for Old*, by PHYLLIS BLANCHARD and CARLYN MANASSES. New York: The Macaulay Company
- Objective Psycho-Pathology*, by G. V. HAMILTON. St. Louis: C. V. Mosby Company
- Our New Ways of Thinking*, by GEORGE BOAS. New York: Harper and Brothers
- Parents and the Pre-School Child*, by WILLIAM E. BLATZ and HELEN BOTT. New York: William Morrow and Company
- Personality Adjustments of School Children*, by CAROLINE B. ZACHRY. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons
- Physical Capacity Tests*, by FREDERICK RAND ROGERS. New York: A. S. Barnes and Company
- Physical Education for Elementary Schools*, by N. P. NELSON and WINIFRED VAN HAGEN. New York: A. S. Barnes and Company
- Point Scale of Performance Tests*, by GRACE ARTHUR. New York: The Commonwealth Fund, Division of Publications
- Postwar Progress in Child Welfare*, *The Annals*. Philadelphia: The American Academy of Political and Social Science
- Principles of Adolescent Education*, by RALPH DORNFELD OWEN. New York: Ronald Press Company
- Problems of Neurosis*, by ALFRED ADLER. New York: Cosmopolitan Book Corporation
- Problems of Pre-School Children*, by MARIE AGNES TILSON. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University
- Problems of Stuttering*, by JOHN MADISON FLETCHER. New York: Longmans, Green and Company
- Proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work at San Francisco*, 1929. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press
- Proceedings of the Second Colloquium on Personality Investigation*, 1929. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press
- Psychiatric Study of Problem Children*, by SANGER BROWN, II, and HOWARD W. POTTER. Utica: State Hospitals Press

- Psycho-Analysis*, by ERNEST JONES. New York: Jonathan Cape and Harrison Smith
- Psychological Service for School Problems*, by GERTRUDE H. HILDRETH. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Company
- Psychologies of 1930*, edited by CARL MURCHISON. Worcester, Massachusetts: Clark University Press
- Psychologist Keeps House*, by EDWINNA ABBOTT COWAN and LAURA THORNBOROUGH. Minneapolis: The Midwest Company
- Psychology of Adolescence*, by FOWLER D. BROOKS. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company
- Psychology of the Infant*, by SIEGFRIED BERNFELD. New York: Brentanos
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- Young Child and His Parents*, by JOSEPHINE C. FOSTER and JOHN E. ANDERSON. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press
- Young Cripple and His Job*, by MARION HATHAWAY. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press

NEWS FROM THE FIELD

National Conference on College Hygiene

At Syracuse University, Syracuse, New York, in May, 1931, there is to be held a National Conference on College Hygiene. The Conference, sponsored by the Presidents' Committee of Fifty on College Hygiene, The American Student Health Association, and the National Health Council, has a very clear-cut and definite purpose; namely, an agreement upon desirable minimum standards for colleges and universities concerning (1) health service, (2) health teaching, (3) interrelationship and correlations of student physical-welfare activities, and (4) miscellaneous problems, including those concerned with social hygiene, mental hygiene, tuberculosis, extracurricular activities, and other related problems which may be presented for consideration. Dr. Thomas A. Storey, of Stanford University, is chairman of the conference.

* * *

The Seventh Annual Junior High-School Conference

During Friday and Saturday of the week-end of March 13 and 14 will be held the seventh annual session of the Junior High-School Conference sponsored by the School of Education of New York University. The general session on Friday evening will be addressed by Dr. E. W. Butterfield, Commissioner of Education of Connecticut, and Superintendent N. W. Langworthy of Gloversville, New York. At the general session on Saturday morning Superintendent Ira T. Chapman of Elizabeth, New Jersey, will deliver the chief address on the problems of the junior high school. It has been the general plan to organize a number of round-table conferences following each of the general sessions for the conference this year. The topics for such conferences as now listed are:

1. Exploring Cultural Resources of the Community
2. Sociological Adjustment of Superior Children
3. Preparation of Teachers for the Junior High School Articulating with Life
4. Furthering Community Understanding of the Junior High School
5. The Boy and His Gang
6. World Peace as an Objective in Articulation with Life
7. Emotional Disturbances of the Junior-High-School Pupil
8. Junior-High-School Articulation with Community Needs and Opportunities in Health and Sanitation

* * *

The Eastern Association of Extension Education, formerly the Eastern Conference of Directors of Extension Education, will hold its second annual meeting at Asbury Park, New Jersey, April 9 and 10.

The purpose of the organization is to provide a central clearing house and an opportunity for the discussion of mutual problems among all of the Extension agencies in this section of the United States. The officers are Stephen C. Clement, Buffalo State Teachers College, president; A. Broderick Cohen, Hunter College, New York City, vice president; and F. J. Brown, Department of Educational Sociology, New York University, secretary-treasurer.

* * *

Indiana Child Health Conference

A conference on behalf of the welfare of the children of Indiana, towards which national authorities on child health, welfare, and education are expected to contribute, was held in Indianapolis on January 15, 16, and 17, 1931, according to an announcement by the State Health Commissioner, Dr. William F. King. The statement by Dr. King follows: "The most comprehensive movement ever attempted in behalf of the welfare of the children of Indiana is now under way and will culminate in a conference in Indianapolis on January 15, 16, and 17. By this conference, which will be addressed by the most eminent authorities on child health, welfare, and education in the nation, Indiana leads the way for her sister States in following up and carrying to the public the great message of health and welfare, the result of President Hoover's recent White House Conference on Child Health and Protection. The Indiana conference which is to open in the Indiana National Guard armory, for the public throughout the State, is sponsored by every medical, social, and civic organization interested in the children of the State. The conference will mark an epoch in child health and welfare and is the summation of years of research and deliberation on the part of the most expert thought and endeavor concerning the welfare of the children in the nation."

* * *

The Eta Chapter of Pi Gamma Mu (the National Social Science organization) was organized on January 16 in New York University. Officers were elected and committees appointed for the remainder of the year. Dr. Clarence G. Dittmer of the sociology department of the Washington Square College was selected as the first president.

* * *

Dr. Malcolm D. Willey, professor of sociology at the University of Minnesota, will be granted leave of absence during the winter quarter of the present school year to work on President Hoover's national research committee on social trends from 1900 to 1930. Professor Willey will study especially changes in communication. He is joint editor with Professor Wilson D. Willis of *Readings in Sociology*, and his syllabus, "An Introduction to Sociology," was published in the fall by the University of Minnesota Press.

Dr. Howard E. Jensen, who has been chairman of the department of sociology at the University of Missouri during the present year, will join the staff of the department of sociology at Duke University next September. Professor Jensen is joining his former colleague, Dr. Charles A. Ellwood, who recently resigned at the University of Missouri to organize a new department of sociology at Duke.

* * *

Professor Emory S. Bogardus, chairman of the department of sociology of the University of Southern California, was elected president of the American Sociological Society at the recent meeting of the Society at Cleveland, Ohio.

* * *

Mr. John Corey Taylor, formerly principal of Poe Junior High School of New York City, has been elected as assistant superintendent of schools of Baltimore.

* * *

Dr. Harlan H. Horner has been appointed director of college education for the New York State Education Department.

* * *

Professor A. G. Keller, head of the department of anthropology and sociology of Yale University, is spending his sabbatical leave in Europe during the present school year. Professor Maurice R. Davie is acting head during Dr. Keller's absence.

* * *

Mr. E. A. Taylor, formerly of the University of Minnesota and Washington State College, has been appointed an instructor in the department of rural social organization at Cornell University.

CONTRIBUTORS' PAGE

Mr. G. G. Hill received his A.B. degree from Western Maryland College in 1919; his M.C. in Education from Susquehanna University in 1927; and his A.M. from the University of Pittsburgh in 1928. At present Mr. Hill is director of the department of commerce, State Teachers College, Indiana, Pennsylvania, and has been serving in that capacity since 1919. Mr. Hill is the author of *Everyday Business Training*.

Dr. P. W. Hutson received his A.B. from Beloit College in 1913 and his Ph.D. from the University of Minnesota in 1925. Since 1922 he has been assistant and associate professor of secondary education at the University of Pittsburgh. Professor Hutson is the author of *The Scholarship of Secondary School Teachers*.

Professor J. Frank Day received his A.B. degree from the University of Utah and his A.M. and Ed.D. from the University of California. At present he is dean of the faculty and director of the School of Education at the Armstrong College of Business Administration, Berkeley, California. He was formerly director of education at the Territorial Normal School, Honolulu, T. H., and has wide experience as a high-school principal and county superintendent of schools in Utah.

Professor Emil Lange received his A.B. and A.M. degrees at the University of South Dakota and is working towards his doctorate in education in the extension and summer classes at the University of Southern California. Mr. Lange is director of curriculum of the Long Beach, California, city schools since 1925 and is also extension instructor in curriculum for the University of California since 1925. He has had twenty-two years of teaching and administrative experience in all types of schools, one year in Minnesota, twelve years in South Dakota, and nine years in California. He is summer-session instructor and lecturer at the University of South Dakota, University of Colorado, and New Mexico Normal University. Mr. Lange is a specialist in character training and has been active in setting up an effective program of this nature in the public schools of his district.

Dr. P. A. Maxwell is head of the department of education at the Peru State Teachers College, Peru, Nebraska. He taught for eleven years in the high schools of Western Pennsylvania and received the doctorate in secondary education from the University of Pittsburgh.

Professor C. L. Robbins received his A.B. at the University of Kansas in 1902, his A.M. at the same institution in 1903, and his Ph.D. at Columbia University in 1912. Dr. Robbins was teacher and principal of schools in Kansas until 1905; professor of methods at the Mon-

tana State Normal College, 1905-1909; assistant teacher of education at the New York City Training School for Teachers, 1910-1918; professor of education, State University of Iowa, from 1918 to the present time. Dr. Robbins is a member of the A.A.A.S., American Sociological Society, American History Association, Society for the Study of Education, College Teachers of Education, Phi Beta Kappa, Phi Delta Kappa, Acacia. He is the author of the following books: *Teachers in Germany in the Sixteenth Century*, *The School as a Social Institution*, *The Socialized Recitation* in conjunction with Elmer Green, *School History of the American People*, and many articles in various magazines.

Mr. Edward F. Waldron was born in Dighton, Massachusetts. He is a graduate of Brown University, 1917, receiving his Ph.B. degree. Mr. Waldron was principal of the Kimball Grammar School and Maple and Charter Street Schools in Massachusetts, and acting superintendent of schools for six months. He was superintendent of schools in Branford, Connecticut, and supervising principal of Union Township Public Schools, Union County, New Jersey. Mr. Waldron has taken graduate courses at Brown University, Yale University, and Extension Courses at Columbia University.

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